
APPENDIX II

REGIONAL CULTURAL CONTEXTS

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Prehistoric Context

Both the Virginia Department of Historic Resources (1990) and Fairfax County archeologist Michael Johnson (1991:10) have developed cultural sequences for Virginia prehistory. These cultural sequences differ slightly in orientation and chronology. Johnson's is based upon radiocarbon dates for Virginia assembled in 1985 by Frederic Gleach, and on ceramic dates obtained from Egloff and Potter (1982); moreover, it reflects a specific Fairfax County orientation, and utilizes subsistence patterns as its primary organizational framework. The Virginia state cultural sequence was designed to provide broad guidelines for the entire state, and the date ranges reflect this statewide orientation. The prehistoric sequence utilized in this report will follow that outlined for the State of Virginia, but it also will reference Johnson's Fairfax County sequence.

Regional Cultural Chronology

Paleo-Indian (ca. 10,000 - 8,000 B.C.). This study unit, called "Paleo-Indian I" (? - 7,410 B.C.) by Johnson (1991), is defined by the occurrence of fluted projectile points, including the Clovis, Mid-Paleo, Dalton, and Hardaway types (Johnson 1986). Climatic episodes defined by Carbone (1976) for the Shenandoah have been suggested as broadly applicable to Fairfax County (Johnson 1986). Johnson suggested that environmental conditions in Fairfax County during the Late Glacial era might have resembled those of the lower elevations in the Shenandoah Valley, with a somewhat milder climate towards the Coastal Plain.

The episode pertinent to the Paleo-Indian study unit is the Late Glacial (ca. 15,000 - 8,500 B.C.)(Custer 1984; Johnson 1986). The Late Glacial represented the terminal Pleistocene and the "last effects of the glaciers upon climate in the Middle Atlantic area" (Custer 1984:44). Pollen records suggest tundra conditions existed as far south as central Pennsylvania at about 9,300 B.C. (Kavanagh 1982:8); further south, pollen and faunal data indicate a "mosaic" pattern of vegetation (Custer 1984:44). Carbone described the Late Glacial vegetation in the Shenandoah Valley as composed of microhabitats, including mixed deciduous gallery forests near the river, mixed coniferous-deciduous forest and grasslands in the foothills and valley floor, coniferous forest on the high ridges, and alpine tundra in the mountains

(Kavanagh 1982:8). It is possible that the faunal assemblage included Pleistocene megafauna, although the extent of human reliance on these animals is debated (Custer 1984; Gardner 1980; Kavanagh 1982).

The lower sea levels of the terminal Pleistocene have important implications for interpreting site distributions along the Potomac River in Fairfax County. In 10,000 B.C., the Atlantic shore was approximately 47 miles east of its current location. Today's Chesapeake Bay "was a broad river valley whose streams, draining large areas of land--much now submerged--carried substantial amounts of water" (Parker 1986:16). The Potomac was probably a broad, braided stream, unstable in its course. The current Coastal Plain was part of the interior at that time (Parker 1986:16). Post-Pleistocene warming trends, and the accompanying sea level rise, may have inundated many Paleo-Indian sites, thus skewing the data on site distribution.

Gardner (1979, 1983) identified six site types in the Shenandoah Valley Paleo-Indian settlement system. These may be more broadly applicable in the Middle Atlantic (Custer 1984). They include: (1) quarry sites; (2) quarry reduction stations; (3) quarry related base camps; (4) base camp maintenance stations; (5) outlying hunting stations; (6) isolated point finds. High quality lithics were the focal point for the settlement system, and hunting and foraging comprised the main subsistence base (Custer 1984; Gardner 1979; Stewart 1980; Johnson, 1991).

The Paleo-Indian study unit is represented in Fairfax County by only seven sites, and no projectile points from this period have been found within the Dogue Creek drainage (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-P1-10). A single chert, fluted point was recovered from the Enoch Site (44FX35), which lies on the first terrace of Accotink Creek in the vicinity of Davidson Airfield (LeeDecker et al. 1984; Johnson 1988). This poor representation may be due partially to inundation of sites due to the post-glacial rise in sea levels. The relative scarcity of high quality cryptocrystalline lithic material in the area also must be considered. While jaspers and cherts are available in the county's Piedmont and Coastal Plain sections in cobble form (Johnson 1986:18, 20), the nearest primary jasper outcrops are located along the upper Potomac near Point of Rocks, Maryland. The lower reaches of the river may have been used only for periodic hunting forays by groups exploiting the upriver jasper (Gardner et al. 1979). However, the recent discovery of a single fluted quartz point in the Tyson's Corner area of the county has prompted a reassessment of previously-held hypotheses concerning Paleo-Indian dependence on high-quality lithic resources.

Early Archaic (8,000 - 6,500 B.C.). Johnson (1991) has called this cultural period "Paleo-Indian II" (7,540 - 6,010 B.C.) and has identified the following projectile points as diagnostic: (1) Palmer/Kirk (corner notched points); (2) Kirk (side notched/stemmed); and (3) bifurcate (notched stem). Again, the Dogue Creek drainage and its associated tidal creek estuary have yielded no points representing Early Archaic period occupation, although at least five have been recovered from the adjacent Accotink drainage (Chittenden et al. 1988:Figures P2-7 and P2-8).

While Gardner (1979, 1980) has emphasized that the Early Archaic period represents a general continuation of Paleo-Indian hunting strategies, Johnson (1991) recently has suggested that the Archaic period subsistence strategies actually were based upon foraging. Archeologically, the major changes noted during this "Early Archaic" phase in Fairfax County have been suggested by: (1) a more stable and restricted site distribution, implying a more sedentary lifestyle; (2) changes in projectile point morphology; and (3) a shift from the nearly exclusive Paleo-Indian focus on high quality cryptocrystalline lithics to the use of a broader range of locally available material (Johnson 1986:P2-1).

The environmental setting of the Early Archaic period was conditioned by the Pleistocene/Holocene transition; the major climatic episode was the Pre-Boreal/Boreal era (8,500 - 6,700 B.C.)(Custer 1984; Johnson 1986; Kavanagh 1982). Climatic change involved warmer summer temperatures with continued wet winters. Parker (1986:16) noted that, by about 6,400 B.C., the Atlantic Coast still was about 34 miles east of its current position and that the Potomac still was an unstable, braided stream. Vegetation shifted accordingly, and, for Fairfax County, Johnson (1986:2-1, 4) has suggested that the "mosaic pattern that was present during Late Glacial times continued, but with more southern hardwood plant species becoming prevalent." This more diverse floral and faunal population has been interpreted as capable of supporting a resource strategy focused on a broader range of small game species and plant foods (Johnson 1991:10).

The subsistence pattern during the Early Archaic has been characterized as approximating that of the preceding Paleo-Indian period, with a general hunting focus (Parker 1986:20). Johnson suggested a more stable and restricted population for Fairfax County during this time. It generally is thought that population was "concentrated near the shore and along the lower river courses," with hunting forays into the uplands (Parker 1986:20).

Middle Archaic (6,500 - 3,500 B.C.). Johnson (1991) also has termed this period "Hunter-Gatherer I" (5,860 - 3,100 B.C.), and he has identified the following projectile points as diagnostic of Middle Archaic occupation: Stanly, lobate, Morrow Mountain/Stark (contracting stem), Halifax, and Guilford (lanceolate)(Johnson 1986, 1991). Few points representing these temporal markers have been recovered from the Dogue Creek watershed and its associated tidal creek estuary. Points from the early stages of this period, formally "Hunter-Gather II", such as Stanly, Morrow Mountain and Guilford also are absent (Johnson 1988). Nine points from the later Big Sandy and Halifax/Brewerton traditions have been reported from sites in the lower Accotink stream valley (Chittenden et al. 1988:Figures P3-7, P3-8, P4-3). Of these types, the Halifax is the most abundant; the occurrence of five Halifax specimens mirrors a general increase in prehistoric activity and/or population that has been observed throughout Fairfax County.

6,500 B.C. marked the emergence of the full Holocene environment and corresponded to the beginning of the Atlantic climatic episode. This episode involved a warmer and more humid period that continued to about 5,000 B.C. (Custer 1984:62-63). The Atlantic shore was approximately 34 miles east of its current location at the start of the period; by its close, this distance had shrunk to between 9 and 13 miles. Parker (1986:23) indicated that "the Potomac had begun downcutting in its present channel by about 5,500 B.C., and fluvial swamps may have developed in wide floodplain areas." It is thought that essentially modern forest conditions were achieved by 6,000 B.C. (Johnson 1986:3-1). Local conditions have been characterized as including mixed southern pine-oak forest in the uplands and an oak-hickory forest in the valley floors (Parker 1986:23). Adaptive strategies continued to focus on foraging, with varying emphases on hunting and collecting that may have co-varied with climatic change.

Johnson (1986:3-7) has observed a sharp drop in projectile point frequencies in Fairfax County during this period. However, he also has noted that there is a survey bias in the county toward upland-interior areas and he suggests that the low site numbers may reflect this bias (Johnson 1986:3-11). Parker (1986:24) maintains that there was "an absolute decline in the use of the uplands, with populations instead perhaps dispersing and concentrating seasonally along the shores and the lower river courses". Data from the Shenandoah Valley seem to indicate a riverine/swamp orientation for sites; there, base camps are associated with low order stream/Shenandoah River junctions (Gardner 1978:14).

Late Archaic (3,000 - 1,000 B.C.). During this time frame, the climate began to change. A warm, dry period "culminated in the xerothermic or 'climatic optimum' around 2,350 B.C., when it was drier and

20 degrees warmer than modern conditions (Kavanagh 1982:9). Vegetation patterns included the reappearance of open grasslands and an expansion of oak-hickory forests in the valley floor and hillsides. By 3,000 B.C., the Atlantic coastline was only about four miles east of its current location. The Chesapeake Bay was filling; there probably were extensive marshlands in the area of the present mouth of the Potomac. Parker (1986:26) has suggested that larger population concentrations, if present, would have exploited these lower Potomac marshes extensively.

Johnson (1986) formerly classified this period as separate and distinct, and labeled it as "Hunter-Gatherer III." However, in his revised prehistoric chronology for Fairfax County (1991), he has combined most of the traditional Late Archaic period, together with the subsequent Early and Middle Woodland periods, into a transitional category similar to Custer's (1991) "Woodland I" (cf. Mouer 1991). He labels the period "Hunter-Gatherer II," and suggests initial and terminal dates of 2,750 B.C. - A.D. 800 for its span in Fairfax County.

Diagnostics marking the Late Archaic phase of this transitional period near the study area include Savannah River and Holmes projectile points (Johnson 1986). Johnson (1986:5-5) noted that sites of this period in Fairfax County "often are larger and more intense in both the uplands and along the main riverine floodplain." Steatite bowls also were added to the tool kit during the Late Archaic, and these soon were followed by the steatite-tempered ceramics that mark the beginning of the Woodland period. Large quantities of Savannah River-like and Holmes points have been recovered from sites along the Accotink Creek, and it is this phase that first can be identified within the upper reaches of the Dogue Creek drainage (Chittenden et al. 1988:Figures P5-19 and P5-20). The increase in numbers of points and their wider distribution suggests that the Late Archaic period represents the initial phase of intensive occupation of this ecotone, including both its tidal and freshwater zones.

Early Woodland (1,000 B.C. - A.D. 300)/Middle Woodland (300 - 1000 A.D.). While the temporal framework developed in Virginia's Cultural Resource Management Plan (1990) continues to display the traditional dichotomy between these two periods, Johnson (1986, 1991) has combined both with the traditional Late Archaic. Marked changes occur during this time, including larger base camps in both riverine and non-riverine zones, exploitation of a wider range of lithics, and possible regional interaction. Both Johnson (1986:5-1) and VDHR (1990) have noted a shift to greater sedentism during the period, and Johnson postulates a subsistence base that continued to emphasize resource collection.

In general, the Woodland period corresponds to the Atlantic climatic episode (ca. 940 B.C. - modern times). While the environment after at least 3,000 B.P. generally approximated that of the present day, some episodic climatic variations continued into the Late Holocene period, as documented by Carbone (1976, 1982) in the Shenandoah Valley. While such episodes were minor in comparison to variations earlier in the Holocene, evidence indicates that "locally significant changes did occur" (Bryson and Wendland 1967:281). Carbone (1976:200) noted three possible stress periods: (1) the Sub-Boreal/Sub-Atlantic transition (3,000 - 2,600 B.P.); (2) the Sub-Atlantic/Scandic transition (1,750 - 1,350 B.P.); and (3) the Neo-Atlantic/Pacific transition (ca. 870 B.P.).

These short-term climatic perturbations apparently produced stresses in the local environment, particularly at points of transition between episodes (Carbone 1976; Custer 1980). Wendland and Bryson proposed that cultural discontinuities could be linked to climatic discontinuities, and that cultural changes thus provided "a 'proxy' indicator of the covariate, climate" (Wendland and Bryson 1974:10). On the regional level, correspondences between climatic/environmental patterns and cultural sequences during the

Woodland have been noted for the Middle Atlantic as a whole (Carbone 1982), and for the Shenandoah Valley (Fehr 1983).

Gardner (1982:58-60) has proposed two settlement pattern models for the Late Archaic to Early Woodland on the Inner Coastal Plain. The "fusion-fission" model suggests that population units fused seasonally into macro-social groups along both fresh water and salt water estuaries to exploit fish runs, and that populations dispersed seasonally to form micro-social unit camps involved in exploiting other resources. The "seasonal shift" model suggests that the same population formed both macro-social unit and micro-social unit camps in fresh water and salt water zones; these large and small social units then moved laterally between zones on a seasonal basis (Gardner 1982:59). Johnson (1986:5-14) feels that both models might be applicable to the Fairfax County area.

The traditional Early Woodland subperiod can be dated from about 1,000 - 500 B.C. (Gardner 1982), although more recent chronologies (VDHR 1990) designate the end of the Early Woodland at ca. 300 A.D. Characteristic ceramics of the period include steatite-tempered Marcey Creek and Seldon Island wares and sand tempered Accokeek wares. None of these ceramic types have been found within the Dogue Creek drainage near the study area (Chittenden et al. 1988:Figures P23, 25).

Diagnostics of the Middle Woodland (ca. A.D. 300 - 1000) in the Coastal Plain of the Potomac include Popes Creek Net-Imprinted and Mockley ceramics; other Middle Woodland sites are identified by projectile points including Fox Creek and Selby Bay types. Johnson (1986:5-21) reported that Piscataway-like points have been found in association with both Accokeek and Popes-Creek-like ceramics. However, the Middle Woodland period generally is understood poorly in the study area; only two ceramic-producing sites of this sub-period had been reported for all of Fairfax County prior to 1988 (Chittenden et al. 1988:Table 5-2). Johnson (1988) since identified Popes Creek ceramics from Site 44FX1342 on Dogue Creek. Large numbers of Piscataway points were obtained from one site on the northern shore of the Accotink Creek estuary; however, the association between such points and ceramic-producing sites, and hence their settlement system implications, are unclear (Johnson 1986:5-26 -5-30).

Late Woodland (A.D. 1000 - 1600). Johnson's (1986, 1991:10) chronology re-converges with that of VDHR at this period, although his dates of 800-1607 A.D. vary somewhat. Johnson uses the terms "Early Agriculturalist" to describe the subsistence base of the Late Woodland period.

In the Coastal Plain areas of the county, settlement and subsistence were distinguished by the following general characteristics:

...the intensive planting and cultivating of domestic plants (corn (maize), beans, squash, tobacco, etc.); a shift in riverine settlements from fishing and shellfishing locales to areas with prime agricultural soils (Gardner 1983:personal communication); the advent of semi-permanent villages; the apparent rise in inter-tribal conflict; the appearance of the bow and arrow, seemingly manifested in the triangular point type; and possibly the first appearance of complex political systems such as tribal confederacies and chiefdoms (Johnson 1986:6-1).

The locations of larger villages and hamlets appears to have been related to the availability of soils suitable for agricultural production. Small shell-fishing camps also persisted in tidewater regions, with, what Johnson terms "exploitative foray camps", located in the interior (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-P6-4).

On the Coastal Plain, Townsend series (shell-tempered) ceramics dominated after A.D. 900 (Clark 1980:18). The crushed-rock tempered Potomac Creek ware appeared somewhat later and was prevalent in the Inner Coastal Plain/Fall Line sections of Northern Virginia (Egloff and Potter 1982:112). This latter ceramic type is thought to be related to the historically known Piscataway Indians (Clark 1980:8). Both ceramic types have been identified in Fairfax County, although Potomac Creek ware predominates (Chittenden et al. 1988:Table P6-3). Representative projectile points from this period are the small triangular forms. Sites that have produced these diagnostic artifacts tend to cluster along the Potomac shoreline and the lower reaches of major tributaries of the Potomac River, although once again, survey bias may have skewed this distribution.

Prehistoric Occupation at Fort Belvoir

A common theory suggests that, throughout the Middle Atlantic, the focus during the Middle and Early Late Archaic Periods was on resource collecting in uplands areas (Mouer 1991). However, others have suggested that this apparent "focus" is in fact a survey bias because rising sea levels have drowned many riverine Archaic sites. For example, Smith (1986) observed a Middle Archaic settlement pattern in the Southeast consisting of transitional camps in the upland areas and base camps in the floodplains of major rivers. Mouer argues that, in the Piedmont where sea levels rises have had less effect, the pattern of primarily upland exploitation of Archaic peoples is evident. The Middle Archaic settlement pattern was followed by an increase in the exploitation of estuarine environments beginning in the Late Archaic Period and continuing through the Woodland Period (Klein and Klatka 1991). Johnson (1986:5-1) noted a shift to greater sedentism during the period, and postulated a subsistence base that continued to emphasize resource collection. An economy based on resource collection may have continued well into the Late Woodland, with agriculture arriving relatively late along the lower terraces of the Belvoir Peninsula and adjacent shorelines.

The proximity of the Potomac River to Fort Belvoir may have spurred the development of the lower terraces along Dogue, Accotink, and Pohick Creeks. Whether through migration (MacCord 1984; Gardner 1986; Custer 1987) or interregional trade and interaction (Klein 1994), the Potomac served as a major transportation and communication link between the Piedmont, the northern Coastal Plain, and the southern Coastal Plain during the Woodland Period and perhaps earlier.

The Belvoir peninsula may have been particularly attractive prehistorically because of its close proximity to three physiographic areas and their divergent resources: the Piedmont, the upper Coastal Plain, and the lower tidal wetlands. The area between the tidal zone and the Fall Line was the richest area in the coastal plain prehistorically; here productive, easily tilled soils combined with enormous biodiversity (Klein 1994). Gravel and cobbles formed the dominant component of many of the soils, resulting in a rich array of raw materials for tool production.

Prior to the Late Archaic, the lower terraces of Fort Belvoir were the upland portions of wide floodplains. However, it appears there was substantial activity in these areas during this time. Based on the limited data from Fort Belvoir, the model of riverine base camps and short-term exploitation of the upland areas may more reflect the settlement patterns than the model that suggests a focus on upland settings. It is possible that further excavations along the lower terraces may show that these areas were the focus of early human habitation, rather than the upland, interior areas.

The lower terraces of Fort Belvoir exhibit a nearly continuous occupation from the head of Dogue Creek Bay to Pohick Creek. Woodland Period sites are more common (34.6 per cent) followed by Late Archaic sites (16.0 per cent) and Middle Archaic sites (8.0 per cent). Paleo-Indian and Early Archaic sites are the least common (3.9 per cent). Most of the sites with temporally diagnostic artifacts are multi-component rather than single component (22 per cent vs. 17.3 per cent). Some sites (4 per cent) have produced artifacts from the entire prehistory of the Middle Atlantic.

The most common site type identified at Fort Belvoir is the lithic artifact scatter from which no diagnostic tools or ceramics have been recovered. Most of the lithic artifact scatters were identified on upland terraces and bluffs overlooking the three major creeks and the Potomac River or at the heads of the minor drainages. Although fewer lithic artifact scatters were identified on the lower terraces, they tended to be larger in size with more dense artifact concentrations. Even though the lithic artifact scatters were aceramic, it would be a mistake to ascribe them arbitrarily to the Archaic Period. They may represent exclusive Archaic Period exploitation or they may mark limited Woodland Period forays into upland areas. The dense scatters on the lower terraces may represent Late Archaic-Woodland Period sites or areas that were occupied throughout prehistory. Perhaps because of the survey methodology, they have not been characterized sufficiently or they may never produce diagnostic artifacts. However, as understanding of the reduction strategies employed in the Middle Atlantic is refined, these non-diagnostic lithic assemblages may in time exhibit temporally distinct traits.

Although their documentation is rare at Fort Belvoir, Early and Middle Archaic sites are more common on the high terraces and along upland stream beds; Late Archaic through Late Woodland sites are clustered almost exclusively along the lower terraces of the major water courses. Only scattered ceramics have been found on a small number of upland sites.

With a decrease in mobility there is an increase in site richness. The density of Woodland artifacts, and perhaps the density of most of the non-diagnostic artifacts, indicates that the lower terraces were intensively occupied at this time. During the Late Archaic through Woodland Periods, a population shift to riverine areas occurred because of their proximity to aquatic resources, which later were supplanted by horticulture. The reliance on specific resources and environments helped to create the terrace base camps that were occupied yearly and, perhaps finally, year-round.

Four excavations conducted on Mason Neck, immediately south of Fort Belvoir, have yielded assemblages that provide a parallel for those that might be expected at Fort Belvoir. Middle to Late Woodland ceramics and a ceramic effigy head were recovered from the Hartwell Site (44FX1847). The site lies on Massey Creek approximately 9 km from Dogue Creek. It has been suggested that this is the possible site of Tauxenent, a Dogue Indian village described by John Smith (Johnson 1994: personal communication). Historically, the Dogue Indians have been linked to Mason Neck area. Excavations at the Taft Site (44FX544) have revealed a large number of features (Johnson 1988; Baird and Norton 1994). Included in the assemblages were Popes Creek, Mockley, and Potomac Creek ceramics and a number of diagnostic point types. A suite of subsistence data was collected from the features and areas of intact stratigraphy. Potomac Creek ceramics were recovered from the Little Marsh Creek Site (44FX1471). The ceramics were recovered from intact features dating from approximately 430 - 640 B.P. (Klein 1994:94). Moore (1993) suggests that the site may represent a short-term encampment because of the limited array of tools and the lack of long term features, such as post-holes and middens. Late Archaic through Late Woodland artifacts have been recovered from the Belmont Bay Site (44FX2058). Test excavations at this site included the surrounding tidal mud flats. Potentially intact stratigraphy was encountered as far as 600 ft from the current shore (Cherryman 1995: personal communication).

Historic Context

Although the VDHR (1990) has developed both temporal and thematic frameworks for Virginia's historical development, the state's contexts were meant to provide overall guidance for development of more localized sequences. Therefore, the background summary for the present study has been modeled primarily upon the *Fairfax County Heritage Resources Management Plan* (Chittenden et al. 1988). This document describes the specific history of Fairfax County through chronologically and thematically organized study units. Those study units have been utilized here to provide an historical context for the study area, as well as a general overview of Fairfax County's history; however, certain units have been modified to conform to specific areal considerations. For example, the Civil War has not been considered as a separate study unit in this report, since the impact of the conflict on the project area was relatively minimal. However, the thematic units on African-American and Quaker history have been treated as separate entities, because these groups had a direct impact upon the pre-military history of Fort Belvoir.

Exploration and Frontier/Early Colonial Settlement (1550 - 1650)

During the first half of the seventeenth century, a tobacco-based plantation system emerged in lower Tidewater Virginia (Morgan 1975). Along the Potomac and in the upper Chesapeake region, a beaver trade flourished during the 1620s and 1630s. This trade brought whites into the area with increasing regularity (Fausz 1984), but none settled the region permanently until the second half of the seventeenth century. Until that time, the Doeg Indians controlled the middle Potomac shoreline (Moore 1991); John Smith's map of the upper Potomac (1608) located the chief Doeg town of Tauxenent on the Occoquan River south of Fort Belvoir (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H1-2).

Early Colonial Settlement (1650 - 1720)

Tidewater tobacco planters quickly discovered that tobacco monoculture depleted the soil. As landholders sought new fields for the crop, and as indentured servants completed their terms of service and sought to acquire their own properties, Virginia's frontier pushed steadily northward (Parker 1986). The first land patents for tidewater Fairfax County were issued in 1651, but most of these grants probably were not "seated." Many later were repatented (Mitchell 1977:3), particularly after Charles II assigned the rights to the entire region between the Rappahannock and Potomac Rivers to several of his supporters in England. Thomas Lord Culpeper eventually bought out most of the other grantees, and in 1675 he assumed sole control of the Northern Neck proprietary (Writers Program 1941:17).

Settlement in the area proceeded slowly until the end of the seventeenth century (Mitchell 1977:4). Augustin Herrman's 1673 *Map of Maryland and Virginia* (in Stephenson 1981:Plate 4) indicates that early plantation sites in southeastern Fairfax County clustered along the Potomac River shoreline. Because so few landowners actually lived on their properties, it is likely that these remote grants were occupied by tenant farmers, indentured servants, slaves, and/or overseers. African slaves increasingly were imported to work the Northern Virginia's tobacco fields (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H2-2).

As the area's population slowly increased, transportation routes were established across the Occoquan River from Woodbridge to Colchester, in Fairfax County, and a ferry was in operation there by the 1680s (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H2-4). A former north-south Indian trail, the so-called "Potomac Path" was improved and extended into the county's frontier settlements. Also known as the "road to Colchester," the Potomac Path corresponded roughly to present-day Telegraph Road, which forms the northwestern boundary of the North Post and the Humphreys Engineer Center. Other unimproved trails were widened into "rolling" roads over which hogsheads of tobacco were conveyed to wharves and warehouses on the Potomac River (Harrison 1987:466).

Tobacco Plantation Society (1720 - 1800)

The plantation society that had developed in southern Virginia spread to tidewater Fairfax during the early eighteenth century. Immense estates, including George Mason's Gunston Hall, George Washington's Mount Vernon, and William Fairfax's Belvoir, were established. These affluent landowners came to represent the political, economic, and social upper class of Fairfax County. The proprietor of the Northern Neck, Thomas Sixth Lord Fairfax, also resided at Belvoir between 1745 and 1761 (LeeDecker 1984:38).

By the mid-eighteenth century, many planters in the region had begun to realize that continued dependence upon tobacco production ultimately would spell disaster. As a result, most progressive planters like George Washington began to diversify their plantation output. By the end of the eighteenth century, this diversified approach to agriculture had all but completely replaced tobacco production in Fairfax County (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H5-1).

Early Diversified Agriculture (1750 - 1840)

In 1742, Fairfax County was created from the northern part of Prince William County. The county's internal transportation network provided access to the churches, the county courthouse, and communities of the interior portion of the county, and connected plantations with ports at Colchester and Alexandria (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H5-2).

The American Revolution did not affect Fairfax County directly in a military sense in that no battles were fought there. Nonetheless, county residents felt its indirect effects. Fairfax's political and social upper class played prominent roles in the events that led to the American Revolution, and supported the war effort politically, militarily, and financially. The ideology of the American independence movement also encouraged many Virginia slaveholders to free their slaves during this period, either through immediate manumission, or in their wills. As a result, a free black population slowly developed in Fairfax County during the first half of the nineteenth century.

After the Revolution, the economy of Fairfax stagnated, and a sizeable portion of its population migrated west. Many planters sold their estates to satisfy their debts, while other properties were partitioned as a result of inheritance. As the nineteenth century progressed, smaller farm units came to characterize the county's economy, and the need for planters to maintain large numbers of slaves diminished. Virginia law permitted manumitted slaves to remain within the state as long as their free status was proved satisfactorily to the county court, usually by affirmation or witness by a white county resident (Sweig 1977:*passim*).

At mid-century, Fairfax County's agricultural economy slowly rebounded as the adoption of "scientific" farming methods increased productivity (Lee 1982:46). An influx of Northern farmers and entrepreneurs, such as the Gillingham family who purchased Woodlawn in the 1840s, increased the county's population. The steady growth of the District of Columbia created an expanding market for commodities produced on outlying farms (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H5-1), and the number of grist mills and other agriculturally related industries increased. Transportation systems improved; steamboat service along Potomac River provided a faster mode of transportation for residents of the eastern part of the county (Harrison 1987:452), and interior road systems were upgraded and expanded. By the time of the Civil War, a road following the approximate route of present-day Beulah Street (Va Rte 613), linking the village of Accotink with Telegraph Road, had been established.

Agrarian Fairfax (1840 - 1940)

Fairfax County remained predominantly rural and agrarian for the next century. Along the Potomac River, farming was supplemented by the development of a fishing industry (LeeDecker 1984:44). During the 1850s, small communities developed around railroad stations and post offices. The hamlet of Accotink, located southwest of the project area, typified these small nucleated villages; in 1879, it contained a schoolhouse, a Methodist Episcopal church, a blacksmith shop, a grist and saw mill, and two stores. The Woodlawn Baptist Church, the Friends Meeting House, and a second schoolhouse provided a community focal point for residents living north of Accotink. During this period, two unique social groups, Quakers and African-Americans, comprised an especially significant element in the Woodlawn area.

Fairfax County's location, south of the nation's capital, was strategically important during the Civil War. When Virginia seceded from the Union, Federal forces occupied parts of the county, took control of local turnpikes and railroads, and erected fortifications to guard Alexandria and the approaches to Washington. However, because southeastern Fairfax County was relatively far from such scenes of direct conflict as Bull Run, the war's effects on the Woodlawn area were comparatively minor.

Quakers in Fairfax County

The Religious Society of Friends, also known as Quakers, had been active in Virginia since the seventeenth century. In the eighteenth century, early Quaker settlements coalesced around the western edges of Alexandria and along the Fairfax-Loudoun border; Alexandria's Quaker meeting was established in 1798. During the 1840s, several Quaker families from Pennsylvania and New Jersey acquired property in the Fort Belvoir area and established the present meeting there.

Three fundamental precepts of this group set them apart from their neighbors: their interest in education; their concern for African-Americans; and their implementation of progressive farming practices (Netherton et al. 1978:258; Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H7-2). The Gillingham and Troth families, who purchased the Woodlawn Plantation for its timber resources (Troth 1971:34,37), were the among the prominent leaders of the group. They helped to establish the Woodlawn Meeting at the intersection of Woodlawn Road and US Rte 1, and many members of these families are interred in the cemetery at the meeting house. The Quaker settlement at Woodlawn, dominated by an abolitionist philosophy, aided free blacks, especially during the Reconstruction period (Chase 1990:21).

After the Civil War, members of this progressive Quaker community continued to provide significant leadership in the Woodlawn area. They were instrumental in establishing local agricultural self-help groups, such as the Woodlawn Farmer's Club, and in promoting innovative approaches to farming. For example, some of their members established dairy farming as a significant economic component of Fairfax County's early twentieth century agriculture (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H7-2). It also was partially due to the concern of the area's Quaker community that a sizeable African-American community began to coalesce in the Woodlawn area.

Free Blacks in Fairfax County

Fairfax County's free African-American population actually emerged prior to the Civil War. Freedom from slavery was gained as a result of outright manumission by owners; by being freed in owners' wills; or following the status of previously freed African-American women. Local and state statutes required that free African-Americans either register with the local courts, or that they leave the state; however, documentary evidence suggests that such laws were enforced only sporadically (Sweig 1983:3-4).

During the first half of the nineteenth century, several free African-Americans established small communities throughout the county, as well as neighborhood enclaves in larger towns such as Alexandria (Chittenden et al. 1988:III-H9-3). The community of Gum Springs, located at the head of Little Hunting Creek, developed around property owned by a former Washington slave, West Ford (Netherton et al. 1978:274; Chase 1990:12). A small group of free African-Americans also apparently settled in the Woodlawn vicinity prior to the Civil War; some of these individuals registered as free "persons of color" during the 1840s and 1850s (Sweig 1977:*passim*), while others were listed as free persons in the 1850 and 1860 population censuses.

After the Civil War, the size of this community increased, and it remained intact through the first quarter of the twentieth century. Its members established the African Methodist Episcopal Church and cemetery on Woodlawn Road, and some members of the congregation lived along an unpaved road that extended in a northwesterly direction from the Woodlawn Quaker meeting house, and then curved south to connect with the present US Rte 1. Hopkins' 1878 map depicts several African American property owners in the area between the present-day Woodlawn Road and Beulah Street.

Most of this nineteenth century road configuration and all of the dwellings shown on the Hopkins map were obliterated when Camp Humphreys was established during World War I. The establishment of Camp Humphreys also may explain why, in 1919, William Holland, an African American resident of Woodlawn, purchased a 52-ac tract of land in the Gum Springs neighborhood (Chase 1990:33).

Suburbanization and Urban Dominance (1890 - Present)

The late nineteenth and twentieth century growth of the Federal government in Washington, D.C. radically changed the character of Fairfax County. As the number of Federal employees rose throughout the period, electric trolley lines and improved road systems integrated Fairfax County into the Washington metropolitan area, and established the area as a suburban "bedroom community" of the nation's capital. A transit line linked Mount Vernon and Washington in 1892; they carried both passengers and freight, especially the dairy products produced in the Woodlawn area (Chase 1990:46,51).

However, the most profound change in the project area was occasioned by the entry of the United States into World War I. In 1910, Philip Otterback sold 1,500 ac of the former Belvoir estate to the United States government (LeeDecker 1984:46). Prior to and during the United States' involvement in World War I, the War Department purchased or condemned many contiguous properties and created the installation known as Camp A. A. Humphreys. Many of the numerous unidentified late nineteenth and early twentieth century dwellings mapped in areas north of US Rt 1 and west of Woodlawn Road were demolished after the Army's acquisition of property in the area.

During the Depression and World War II, the needs of a growing Federal work force resulted in the establishment of more complex transportation network throughout the county, and gave rise to ever-expanding residential areas. Farmlands were sold to developers or to the Federal government. A second round of land acquisitions occurred as the Army expanded Fort Belvoir to accommodate anticipated training needs related to the United States' involvement in World War II. At that time, the remaining small properties east of Woodlawn Road and north of Pole Road as well as the institutional structures associated with the Woodlawn community itself, disappeared when the Fort Belvoir post was again enlarged.

During the last 20 years, major shopping, business, and industrial centers have emerged to dominate Fairfax, particularly along major transportation routes such as Interstate 95 and the Capital Beltway. Fort Belvoir's mission also has changed; since 1988, the installation has functioned within the Military District of Washington (MDW) and hosts and supports a variety of tenant activities. No longer rural, the Fort Belvoir area today presents a mosaic of commercial and residential areas that reflects the continuing growth of the Washington metropolitan region.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FORT BELVOIR AS A MILITARY INSTALLATION HAS BEEN SUMMARIZED IN CHAPTER II OF THIS ICRMP.

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